Structural basis of HSV-1 DNA replication origin-binding protein UL9

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Abstract

The herpesvirus DNA replication machinery comprises a battery of viral enzymes that orchestrate viral genome synthesis. In HSV-1, the machinery consists of seven essential components, including the replication origin-binding protein UL9, ssDNA-binding protein ICP8, the heterodimeric DNA polymerase complex UL30/UL42, and the heterotrimeric helicase-primase complex UL5/UL8/UL52. UL9, an SF2 helicase family member, functions as a dimer that sequence-specifically recognizes the replication origin sites and unwinds duplex DNA to initiate replication. Furthermore, UL9 interacts with several viral replication components to recruit the replication machinery, as well as with cellular proteins that regulate its own functions. However, the molecule mechanisms underlying UL9's multifunctionality remain poorly understood due to the lack of structural information. In this study, we present the first cryo-EM structures of UL9 in both apo and DNA-bound states. Combining biochemical and enzymatic assays, we elucidate the molecular basis of UL9 dimerization, origin recognition and activity regulation by ICP8-binding.

Keywords

Herpesvirus, DNA replication machinery, Origin-Binding Protein, UL9, Helicase superfamily

Introduction

The *Herpesviridae* family is a large group of enveloped viruses with relatively large, complex double-stranded DNA genomes. To date, over 100 herpesviruses with a wide range of vertebrate hosts have been recognized and classified into three subfamilies (α-, β- and γ-herpesvirus) based on their biological properties and tissue tropism. Notably, nine herpesviruses are pathogenic in humans and cause numerous human diseases, these include α-herpesviruses (herpes simplex virus types 1 and 2 (HSV-1, HSV-2), varicella-zoster virus (VZV)); β-herpesviruses (human cytomegalovirus (HCMV), human herpesvirus 6A/B (HHV-6A, HHV-6B), human herpesvirus 7 (HHV-7)); γ-herpesviruses (Epstein-Barr virus (EBV) and Kaposi's sarcoma-associated herpesvirus (KSHV/HHV-8))[1]. Over 90% people around the world has been infected with various herpesviruses. These herpesviruses establish lifelong latency in infected persons and periodically reactivate during the episodes of immunosuppression or physiological stress, with no existing therapeutic approaches to achieve complete viral eradication[2]. Up to date, there are limited medical interventions to specific herpesviruses, including two launched vaccines Shingrix and Zostavax for VZV[3], and antiviral drugs such as Acyclovir, Valacyclovir, Famciclovir and Pritelivir effective against HSV-1 and VZV[4]. For other herpesviruses, particularly oncogenic pathogens EBV and KSHV, effective antiviral drugs or vaccines remain unavailable. Furthermore, currently antiviral drugs also carry the risks of side effects and drug resistance[4-6]. Therefore, developing new medical treatments against herpesviruses is essential. Viral DNA replication represents a particularly promising therapeutic target[7, 8].

In herpesviruses, viral DNA replication occurs in the nucleus of host cell and is carried out by a sophisticated multienzyme DNA replication machinery[9-11]. For HSV-1, its DNA replication machinery comprises seven core components, including the replication origin-binding protein (OBP) UL9, single-stranded DNA (ssDNA)-binding protein ICP8, the heterodimeric DNA polymerase complex UL30/UL42, and the heterotrimeric helicase-primase complex UL5/UL8/UL52. The DNA polymerase complex possesses two functionally distinct subunits: the catalytic subunit UL30 is a B-family DNA polymerase harboring both 5'-3' polymerase activity and 3'-5' proofreading exonuclease activity, and the processivity factor UL42 helps polymerase maintain the high processing ability. Within the

helicase-primase complex, the helicase subunit UL5 is responsible for double-stranded DNA (dsDNA) unwinding during elongation, the primase subunit UL52 synthesizes short RNA primers for DNA polymerase, and the primase-helicase associated factor UL8 coordinates the activities of UL5 and UL52. The ssDNA-binding protein ICP8 is a multifunctional protein that prefers to bind ssDNA in a non-sequence-specific and cooperative manner while preventing it from nuclease degradation and annealing. Additionally, ICP8 stimulates the helicase activity of UL9, modulates DNA polymerase processivity, and regulates helicase-primase complex function through direct interactions with UL9, UL42 and UL8[9-11], respectively. The origin-binding protein UL9 mainly orchestrates replication initiation through sequence-specific recognition of origin sites and subsequently unwinds the genomic DNA with the help of ICP8 to initiate DNA replication[9-18]. Furthermore, UL9 functions as a molecular hub, interacting with viral replication components ICP8[17, 19-21], UL42[22-24] and UL8[25] to recruit the replication machinery while engaging cellular proteins[11] such as topoisomerase I[21], hTid-1[26], and heat shock proteins[27] to regulate its own functions. These multifaceted roles establish UL9 as a central coordinator of herpesvirus DNA synthesis.

As a member of the SF2 helicase superfamily, HSV-1 UL9 has been reported to function as a dimer under physiological conditions[15, 28], possessing an N-terminal helicase domain and a C-terminal domain (Fig. 1a). Despite its essential role in HSV-1 DNA replication initiation, the understanding of UL9's molecular mechanism remains elusive due to the lack of structural information. In this study, we present the structures of HSV-1 UL9 in both apo and DNA-bound states, determined by cryo-electron microscopy (cryo-EM) single-particle analysis. Combined with *in vitro* biochemical and enzymatic assays, we elucidate the molecular basis of UL9's dimerization, origin recognition and activity regulation by ICP8 interaction. These findings not only advance our understanding of the mechanism of HSV-1 replication initiation but also provide potential new targets for the development of anti-herpesviral drugs.

Result

Cryo-EM structure determination of HSV-1 UL9

For structural studies, the recombinant full-length HSV-1 UL9 (UL9^{FL}) protein was expressed in insect cells using the Bac-to-Bac expression system and purified to homogeneity through a tandem two-step purification (Supplementary Fig. 1). The UL9-DNA complex was prepared by incubating affinity-purified UL9 with 56-bp dsDNA containing Box I and II from OriS at a molar ratio of 1:1.5, followed by gel filtration (Supplementary Fig. 1). Using cryo-EM single-particle analysis, the structures of apo-UL9 and the UL9-DNA complex were resolved at resolutions of 4.1 Å and 3.7 Å (Fig. 1, Supplementary Figs. 2 and 3, and Supplementary Table 1), respectively. The model of UL9-DNA complex, which with higher overall resolution, was first built with the help of the predicted models using Alphafold 2[29] and mainly used for subsequent structural analyses. The final structural model of the UL9-dsDNA complex comprises residues 19-843 and two duplex DNA molecules, with residues 135-146, 267-283 and 431-456 missing (Fig. 1c and Supplementary Fig. 4a). The region comprising residues 748-799 and duplex DNA was flexible, resulting in a local resolution below 4.5 Å (Supplementary Figs. 2g). Accordingly, the model for residues 748-799 and only 23-bp of the duplex DNA was constructed by fitting the AlphaFold-predicted structure into the density map. Moreover, the nucleic acid sequence in the model remained undetermined, which prevented subsequent analysis of UL9's sequence-specific recognition mechanism. In contrast to the UL9-dsDNA complex, residues 748-799 were not modeled in the apo-UL9 structure due to the complete absence of corresponding density in the cryo-EM map (Supplementary Fig. 4b).

Architecture of the UL9 dimeric complex

Consistent with previous reports demonstrating UL9 is a dimer in solution and *in vivo*[15, 28], the resolved apo-UL9 and UL9-DNA complex are dimers with C2 symmetry. The UL9-DNA complex displays overall dimensions of 115 × 110 × 65 Å (Supplementary Fig. 4a). In contrast, apo-UL9 structure obviously lacks bound DNA and DNA-binding elements, leaving a slender yet compact structure core (Supplementary Fig. 4b). While the UL9 dimer adopts a compact structure core, the protomers exhibit an extended architecture (Figs. 2a, b). The extended conformation enables clear structural segmentation of UL9 into two

functional domains: the N-terminal helicase domain (residues 19-535) and C-terminal

domain (residues 536-851). The dimer interface is primarily formed by closely adjacent

CTDs, which constitute the rigid dimeric core, while the two helicase domains are located

on the either side of the core without any interaction between each other. Furthermore, no

significant conformational differences were observed between apo-UL9 and the UL9-DNA

complexes (Supplementary Fig. 4c).

Structural details of UL9 helicase domain

For N-terminal helicase domain of UL9, structural homology analysis was performed using

the Dali server[30]. The top hits of the identified structural homology including DDX48[31]

(PDB: 7ZNJ, Z=18.9, RMSD=3.8 Å) (Fig. 2c), DDX17[32] (PDB: 6UV3, Z=18.7, RMSD=3.9

Å) and Vasa[33] (PDB: 4D26, Z=15.9, RMSD=3.9 Å). And all these homologs belong to the

DExD/H-box SF2 helicase superfamily. Like the members of SF2 helicase superfamily,

UL9's helicase domain can be subdivided into two RecA-like subdomains, RecA1 (residues

40-242) and RecA2 (residues 243-406 and 476-501) (Figs. 1a and 2a-d). Structural

comparison of UL9's RecA1 and RecA2 subdomains with their counterparts in DDX48

(RecA1, residues 23-242; RecA2, residues 243-404) revealed root-mean-square deviation

(RMSD) values of 2.5 Å and 4.1 Å (Fig. 2d), respectively, indicating that UL9 maintains

conserved structural features of RecA-like domain with seven parallel β-strands. Key

residues implicated in ATP binding and hydrolysis within RecA1 are exactly the same, as

evidenced by the structural alignment of the AlphaFold-predicted UL9-ATP model with

DDX48 (Fig. 2e). By comparison, UL9's helicase domain possesses additional structural

elements (residues 19-39, 407-475 and 502-535) beyond the conserved RecA1 and RecA2

subdomains (Fig. 2d). The discontinuous fragments constitute a specific structure spanning

between RecA1 and RecA2, which we define as the **Bridge motif** (Fig. 2a-c). The Bridge

motif participates in UL9 dimerization and may also be involved in allosteric regulation of

UL9 function, as will be described later. This unique structural feature of UL9 exhibits

divergence from canonical SF2 family helicases, particularly the DExD/H-box subfamily.

Our observations imply that the herpesvirus UL9-like helicases have evolved unique

structural adaptations during viral evolution, potentially enabling novel molecular

mechanisms distinct from cellular SF2 helicases.

Structural details of UL9 C-terminal domain

The CTD can also be structurally subdivided into three subdomains or regions (Figs. 1 and 2a, b). **The first subdomain** (residues 536-747 and 800-833), comprising twelve α-helices and two antiparallel β-sheet pairs, constitutes the structural core of CTD and mediates UL9 dimerization through extensive interactions with multiple regions of the opposing protomer. Based on its functional characteristics, we designate this subdomain as the **C-terminal dimerization domain (CDD)**. **The second subdomain** (residues 748-799) mainly comprises four α-helices. Structural homology analysis using the Dali server[30] revealed that only this subdomain of the CTD showed significant similarity to known domains. The top structural homologs were all SAP (SAF-A/B, Acinus, PIAS) domains, including MAFN[34] (PDB: 6HA7, Z=5.3, RMSD=2.7 Å), CDNF (PDB: 8QAJ, Z=4.6, RMSD=2.5 Å), PIAS1[35] (PDB: 1V66, Z=3.9, RMSD=2.1 Å), and so on (Figs. 2f and Supplementary Fig. 5). Notably, these matches exhibited <15% sequence identity despite structural conservation (Sequence identity between the residues 748-799 of UL9 and the SAP domain of MANF is 12.8%.). The SAP domain, named after three founding members SAF-A/B, Acinus and PIAS, represents a compact 35-residue module with a conserved structural fold of two α-helices separated by a turn[36]. It is found in numerous nuclear and cytoplasmic proteins participating in chromatin organization, transcriptional regulation, DNA repair, and RNA metabolism, and well-characterized for its DNA/RNA-binding properties[36, 37] (Supplementary Fig. 5b). In UL9, this subdomain also functions as the determinant for dsDNA binding, leading us to classify this DNA-binding motif as a **SAP domain**. **The third structural region** comprises the last 17 residues (residues 834-851) located at the extreme C-terminus, which protrudes from the core CDD domain. This flexible terminal extension exhibits a tail-like structural conformation, therefore we named it the C-terminal tail (**C-tail**). The C-tail facilitates UL9 dimerization, mediates ICP8 interactions, and modulates UL9's activity, as detailed below.

Structural details of UL9 dimerization

Under physiological conditions, UL9 functions in the form of dimer[15, 28]. The dimerization mechanism is not yet clear due to limited structural information[28]. In this study, the

purified UL9 proteins exist definitively as dimers in solution, in both apo and DNA-bound

states confirmed by the cryo-EM (Figs. 1b, c and Supplementary Fig. 2). Moreover, DNA

binding induces no observable conformational changes in the UL9 dimer structure

(Supplementary Fig. 4c). Structural analysis demonstrates that UL9 homodimerization is

primarily mediated by symmetric interactions between one protomer's CTD domain (only

the CDD subdomain and C-tail) and the opposing protomer's CDD subdomain and helicase

domain, with an overall interface area of approximately 3815 $Å^2$. Notably, no direct

interprotomer interactions were observed between the helicase domains. Furthermore, the

SAP domain shows no involvement in dimer formation.

According to the features of dimerization interface, we classified them into three types

(Fig. 3). **Type I interface** was located at the core of the dimer with C2 symmetry formed by

two adjacent CDD subdomains (Fig. 3b). It is formed mainly through hydrophobic

interactions, including the residues L552, A603, R606, H611, V616, L628, A630, P633,

L635, A823, I826, L827, A830, L831, and L834 from two protomers that form a hydrophobic

core. In addition, E555 and D824 of one protomer form additional a salt bridge and a

hydrogen bond with R607 of the other protomer, respectively, with E548 forming a

hydrogen bond with the main-chain of A603 (Supplementary Fig. 6a). **Type II interface** was

formed between the CDD subdomain of one protomer and the helicase domain of the

opposing protomer (Fig. 3c). The residues P596, M597, and P835 of the CDD subdomain

form van der Waals forces with the residues V410, F430, Y469, and C473 of the Bridge

motif. The residues T599, S602, E642, S832, and E833 the CDD subdomain formed salt

bridges or hydrogen bonds with N373 of RecA2, R406, S407, E408, P409, Q429 and Y469

of the Bridge motif, respectively (Supplementary Fig. 6b). **Type III interface** was created by

C-tail insertion into the inter-domain cleft formed by all subdomains of the helicase domain

and the CDD subdomain of the opposing protomer (Fig. 3d). The residue P835, A838,

W839, P840, M841, and M842 of C-tail form van der Waals forces with the residues V350,

V353, and P376 of RecA2, residues H468 and Y469 of Bridge, and residues A545, V550,

V554, V562, P564, and I567 of the CDD subdomain, residue T836, E837, A838, and Q843

form formed salt bridges or hydrogen bonds with residues R112, Y184, S185, and T187 of

RecA1, N373 of RecA2, R472 of Bridge, and N820 of CDD subdomain of the opposing

protomer (Supplementary Fig. 6c). Structurally, the C-tail serves as a molecular glue that

simultaneously tightly bridges multiple subdomains (RecA1, RecA2, Bridge and CDD) of
the opposing protomer and potentially inhibits the movement between subdomains. This
symmetric interaction between two protomers potentially stabilizes the UL9 dimer
conformation and contributes to allosteric regulation of its enzymatic activity.

Sequence alignment (Supplementary Figs. 7 and 8) indicated that interfaces I and II
are broadly conserved across most analyzed alphaherpesviruses or maintain conserved
biochemical properties. In contrast, interface III shows significantly higher conservation,
with 11 identical and 7 similar residues. Among human-infecting herpesviruses, while
interfaces I and II demonstrate high conservation within alpha or beta herpesviruses
respectively, clear divergence exists between the two subfamilies. Interface III retains
greater cross-subfamily conservation, preserving 7 identical and 5 similar residues. A
critical structural difference is the absence of the C-tail in beta herpesviruses, a functionally
important feature in alpha herpesviruses. These observations indicate that while the
dimerization mechanism remains relatively conserved between alpha and beta
herpesviruses, significant divergence has occurred in mechanistic details, particularly
regarding C-tail-mediated dimerization and functional regulation.

232 Interaction details between UL9 and dsDNA

The HSV-1 genome contains three distinct origin sites for viral DNA replication[9, 38].
UL9 specifically recognizes and binds to these origin sequences to initiate DNA
synthesis[13, 38, 39]. To elucidate the molecular mechanism of UL9-origin interaction, we
determined the cryo-EM structure of UL9-DNA complex. In UL9-DNA complex, UL9 binds
to dsDNA in a 2:2 stoichiometric ratio (Figs. 1b, c and Supplementary Figs. 9a, b).
Compared with apo-UL9, DNA binding induces no significant conformational changes,
except for the appearance of the SAP domain (Supplementary Figs. 2, 4). The structure of
UL9-DNA complex clearly reveals that dsDNA binding is almost restricted to the SAP
domain, with no other interactions observed elsewhere (Figs. 1b, c and Supplementary
Figs. 9a, b). Intriguingly, although the helicase domain possesses nucleic acid-binding
capability, no specific DNA binding to helicase domain was detected within the solved
structure.

Despite attempts to determine the sequence-specific recognition mechanism of UL9,

the flexibility of the SAP-DNA interaction region limited the local resolution of this part was

lower than 4.5 Å, preventing the acquisition of interaction details at the atomic level.

Structural analysis based on the AlphaFold-predicted model fitted into the low-resolution

density map reveals that UL9 likely interacts with dsDNA through residues Q749, R756,

K758, N759, K762, R783, Y786, M790, and K793 of SAP subdomain and residues K746,

K802 and R804 of CDD subdomain (Fig. 4a and Supplementary Fig. 9a). Residues R756,

K762, R783 and K793 of SAP and residues K746, K802 and R804 of CDD coordinate with

the phosphodiester backbone through ionic interactions. Residues Q749, N759, and K758

form hydrogen bonds with nucleobase edges. Residues Y786 and M790 stabilize base

stacking through van der Waals contacts (Fig. 4b). To pinpoint residues participating in DNA

interactions, we employed electrophoretic mobility shift assays (EMSA) for binding

confirmation and microscale thermophoresis (MST) assay for quantitative affinity

measurements. Since DNA binding is predominantly mediated by the SAP subdomain, all

assays were performed using the C-terminal domain of UL9 (UL9^{CTD} or UL9C) and its

derived mutants. The dsDNA substrate used in EMSA and MST assays consisted of a

15-bp Box I sequence from OriS. The results of EMSA (Fig. 4c) demonstrated the deletion

of SAP (UL9C$^{\Delta SAP}$) and the triple mutant R756A/K758A/K762A (UL9C^{mRKK}) completely

abolished UL9^{CTD}-DNA interaction. Among single-point mutants, K746A, R756A, K758A,

K762A, Y786A, and M790A exhibited significant binding attenuation, whereas Q749A,

N759A, R783A, K793A, K802A and R804A mutants showed moderate but significant

reductions. MST assays (Supplementary Fig. 10) revealed that wild-type UL9^{CTD} binds to

dsDNA with a dissociation constant (K_d) of 2.23 ± 0.42 µM. No binding was detected for

either UL9C$^{\Delta SAP}$ and UL9C^{mRKK}, while the binding affinities of mutants R756A, Y786A, and

M790A decreased by approximately 5- to 14-fold. Mutants K746A, K758A, K762A, K802A,

and R804A exhibited 2- to 4-fold reductions, and mutants Q749A, N759A, R783A, K793A

exhibited 1.4- to 1.8-fold reductions. Mutant R793A's binding ability is almost unaffected

due to its distal location within the DNA-binding interface. The results of MST assay are

consistent with those of EMSA, jointly identifying the residues involved in UL9-DNA

interactions. Collectively, dsDNA binding occurs through a coordinated mechanism

involving the SAP domain and three residues (K746, K802 and R804) within CDD

contiguous with SAP. These elements form a triangular SAP-CDD-dsDNA interaction

geometry (Fig. 4b) that stabilizes the SAP-DNA conformation, thereby facilitating SAP

domain visualization in the cryo-EM structure of the UL9-DNA complex.

Sequence alignment analysis reveals remarkable evolutionary conservation of

DNA-binding residues across α-herpesviruses (Supplementary Fig. 7). Especially, five

residues K758, N759, K762, Y786, and M790 exhibit absolute conservation across all

species examined, while four residues K746, R756, R783, and K793 consistently maintain

positively charged residues (Arg or Lys). Furthermore, three residues Q749, K802, and

R804 show restricted variability, with functionally distinct substitutions observed in one or

two of the ten analyzed species. Evolutionary conservation analysis of human

herpesvirus-encoded UL9-like proteins reveals distinct residue conservation profiles

(Supplementary Figure 8). Among human herpesvirus-encoded UL9-like proteins, distinct

conservation patterns are revealed (Supplementary Fig. 8). Residues K762 and K802

exhibit complete identity, while residues K758, R783, and K793 invariantly retain positively

charged side chains. N759 shows high conservation in five out of six species; the remaining

residues display significant divergence between α- and β-herpesvirus lineages.

Structural basis underlying UL9-ICP8 interaction

UL9 could interact with the ssDNA-binding protein ICP8 to form a ternary replication

initiation complex at the origin site[17, 40-42]. ICP8 has also been reported to stimulate the

helicase activity of UL9[17, 19, 20, 41]. While previous studies have identified the

C-terminus of UL9 as participating in ICP8 binding[17], the precise interaction site and

mechanism remain unclear. To map the minimal ICP8-interaction region of UL9, we

performed *in vitro* pull-down assays using recombinantly purified UL9 truncation mutants

based on the structural information. First, Strep-tag pull-down assay was employed to

compare the binding capacity of UL9^{FL} and UL9^{CTD} with ICP8. The results showed that

UL9^{FL} displayed markedly weak interaction with ICP8, whereas UL9^{CTD} exhibited strong

binding capacity (Fig. 5a). On this basis, we further investigated the specific region of

UL9^{CTD} participated in interaction with ICP8. The GST pull-down assays showed that the

deletion of either the terminal 8 residue (UL9C^{Δ8}) or 16 residue (UL9C^{Δ16}) completely

abrogated the UL9^{CTD}-ICP8 interaction, while the isolated 8-residues (C-tail^{8aa}) or

16-residues (C-tail^{16aa}) segments showed no detectable ICP8-binding (Fig. 5b). The

deletion of SAP domain dose not impair the UL9C-ICP8 interaction, indicating that the SAP domain is dispensable for ICP8 binding. These results demonstrate that both the CDD subdomain and C-tail are cooperatively required for effective ICP8-binding.

Integrating the above findings with structural features of UL9, we propose a mechanistic model for UL9-ICP8 interaction and its regulation. In the apo state of UL9, the interaction between UL9 and ICP8 is severely impaired because the C-tail is wrapped by the helicase domain of the opposing subunit, preventing cooperative engagement with the CDD subdomain for ICP8 interaction. Conversely, in the functional state, UL9 must undergo an ATP binding/hydrolysis-driven conformational rearrangement to release the C-tail, thereby permitting its cooperative engagement with the CDD subdomain for greatly enhanced ICP8 binding.

Allosteric activation of UL9 activity by ICP8-binding

The HSV-1 UL9 primarily functions to unwind viral genome DNA at the replication origin through ATP hydrolysis-driven conformational changes, facilitated by ICP8-binding. By integrating structural information to explore potential regulatory mechanisms of UL9 activity, we systematically characterized UL9's ATPase and helicase activities under various conditions using specific mutants.

The purified recombinant wild-type UL9 exhibits both ATPase and helicase activities (Fig. 5c and Supplementary Fig. 11a). As expected, the ATP-binding-deficient mutant K87A and hydrolysis-deficient mutant E175Q completely lost both ATPase and helicase activities, confirming the essential role of ATP hydrolysis in UL9's molecular mechanism (Fig. 5c and Supplementary Fig. 11a). The DNA-binding-deficient mutants UL9$^{\Delta SAP}$ and UL9^{mRKK}, which maintain basal ATPase activity, show complete helicase deficiency due to abolished DNA-binding capacity (Fig. 5c and Supplementary Fig. 11a). Furthermore, wild-type UL9 displays DNA-stimulated enhancement of ATPase activity, whereas mutants UL9$^{\Delta SAP}$ and UL9^{mRKK} fail to respond to DNA stimulation (Supplementary Fig. 11b). These findings demonstrate that DNA-binding is not only essential for UL9's helicase activity but also enhances its ATP hydrolysis.

We next investigated the functional impact of the UL9-ICP8 interaction on UL9's ATPase and helicase activities. ATPase activity assays showed that UL9's ATP hydrolysis

rate increased progressively with rising ICP8 concentrations (Supplementary Fig. 11c).

Compared to wild-type UL9, both C-terminal truncation mutants $UL9^{\Delta8}$ and $UL9^{\Delta16}$ exhibited

enhanced ATPase activity in a progressive manner, with $UL9^{\Delta8}$ exhibiting a 2.5-fold

increase and $UL9^{\Delta16}$ a 1.5-fold increase (Fig. 5c). These findings align with previous

reports[39]. Meanwhile, increasing ICP8 concentration did not induce any significant

changes in the ATPase activity of either mutant (Supplementary Fig. 11c). These findings

indicate that C-terminal truncation increases ATPase activity while abolishing

ICP8-mediated regulation. Regarding helicase activity, the C-terminal truncation similarly

affected this function. In contrast to the observed enhancement in ATPase activity,

progressive truncation of the C-terminus led to a corresponding reduction in helicase

activity, with $UL9^{\Delta8}$ displaying more pronounced impairment than $UL9^{\Delta16}$ (Supplementary

Fig. 11a). While ICP8 remarkedly stimulated the helicase activity of wild-type UL9, both

truncation mutants showed no response to ICP8 stimulation (Fig. 5d).

Collectively, these results strengthen the implication of C-tail in UL9 dimerization, ICP8

interactions and the regulation of both ATPase and helicase activities. These findings are

consistent with the proposed role of C-tail as a molecular glue that tightly bridges multiple

subdomains of UL9, thereby limiting the mutual movement between subdomains which

potentially essential for UL9's activities. Since the interaction between C-tail and the

helicase domain overlaps with the potential nucleic acid-binding site, the dynamic

interaction between the C-tail and the helicase domain of the opposing protomer governs

the modulation of both ATPase and helicase activities.

Discussion

In summary, the cryo-EM structures of UL9 elucidate distinctive structural features and their

functional insights. While the N-terminal helicase domain's RecA subdomains maintain the

conserved features of SF2 helicases, UL9 uniquely possesses an evolutionary-derived

Bridge motif that distinguishes it from other SF2 helicase superfamily members. The

C-terminal domain exhibits a clear structural division into three functionally specialized

subdomains: (1) the CDD domain, principally mediating UL9 dimerization; (2) the SAP

domain, responsible for sequence specific recognition of the replication origin sites; and (3)

the C-tail, which participates in both UL9 dimerization and ICP8 interactions with potentially

playing crucial roles in the allosteric regulation of UL9's enzymatic activity.

HSV-1 UL9 is a member of the herpesvirus-specific OBP family. As both an

origin-binding protein and helicase, UL9 exhibits functional parallels to simian virus 40

(SV40) large tumor antigen (LTag)[43] and human papillomavirus (HPV) E1 protein[43].

However, unlike the SF3 helicase superfamily member LTag and E1 that form hexamers[43,

44] through their helicase domains, UL9 functions solely as a dimer mainly through its

unique CDD domain rather than helicase domain. Structural homology analysis shows that

the helicase domain of UL9 is most similar to the DExD/H-box SF2 helicase superfamily. In

addition, the key residues involved in ATP binding and hydrolysis are almost completely

conserved. However, UL9 displays several unique structural features. Unlike members of

the SF2 helicase superfamily, which generally function as monomers[45, 46], UL9 functions

as a dimer. In addition, the key residues of the core motif II of HSV-1 UL9 have undergone

evolutionary divergence: DEAH in Prp2 and DECH in HCV NS3 (both from the

DEAH/D-box subfamily), DEAD in DDX48 and eIF4A (DEAD-box subfamily), DEVH in Ski2

(Ski2-like subfamily), and DQAD in Vasa (Vasa subfamily). However, this contrasts with

174-DEVM-177 in HSV-1 UL9 as well as in HSV-2 and VZV, and its variant DEIM in

β-herpesviral UL9-like proteins (HHV6A, HHV6B and HHV7) (Supplementary Fig. 8).

Furthermore, an additional Bridge motif is present within the helicase domain. These

distinctive features clearly differentiate UL9 from well-characterized SF2 helicase

superfamily members. Given these unique structural and mechanistic properties, along with

the conservation of dimerization and DNA recognition among herpesvirus-encoded

UL9-like OBPs, we propose classifying all herpesviruses encoding UL9-like OBPs as a

distinct **UL9-like SF2 helicase subfamily**.

As a member of the SF2 helicase superfamily, UL9 contains a conserved helicase

domain exhibiting potential nucleic acid-binding capability (Supplementary Fig. 9). While

the solved UL9-DNA complex structure reveals that primary dsDNA binding occurs through

the SAP domain, this configuration alone fails to explain the duplex DNA unwinding

mechanism. We therefore propose that the helicase domain of UL9 may harbor an

additional DNA-binding site potentially exhibits specificity for ssDNA, as proposed in

previous literature[47, 48]. This putative DNA-binding site likely cooperates with SAP

domain to facilitate duplex DNA unwinding through ATP hydrolysis-induced conformational
changes.

Combining the findings that ICP8 predominantly binds cooperatively to both the C-tail
and the CDD subdomain of UL9 to stimulate both its ATPase and helicase activities, we
propose the following **working model for UL9** (Fig. 6). Stage I, UL9 exists as a dimer in its
resting state, with each protomer's C-tail inserted into the inter-domain cleft of the opposing
protomer. This structural arrangement maintains the helicase domains in a low activity state
with minimal ATP hydrolysis ability. Stage II, upon ICP8 binding to the C-tails of UL9, the
C-tails are extracted from the inter-domain cleft, relieving auto-inhibition and activating the
ATP hydrolysis ability of the helicase domains. Stage III, the activated helicase domains
bind ssDNA and unwinds duplex DNA through ATP hydrolysis-driven conformational
changes. Stage IV, following DNA unwinding, the ssDNA products are released and ICP8
dissociates from the UL9 complex.

While this study has elucidated the structural basis of UL9's dimerization, dsDNA
recognition and ICP8-mediated activity regulation, the precise molecular mechanisms
underlying its sequence-specific origin recognition and dsDNA unwinding remain
unresolved. Future structural studies focused on UL9, particularly its complexes with origin
DNA in different conformational states, the UL9-ICP8-DNA ternary complex, and its
complexes with other viral or cellular partner proteins, are essential to fully elucidate the
multifunctional mechanisms of UL9. Furthermore, the development of anti-herpesviral
drugs targeting the structure and function of UL9 presents a promising avenue.

Materials and methods

DNA substrates and preparation

All DNA substrates used in this study were synthesized by Tsingke Biotechnology and purified by HPLC. The oligonucleotides were initially dissolved in Annealing buffer (10 mM Tris-HCl, pH 8.0, 50 mM NaCl, 1 mM EDTA) to a final concentration of 100 μM. For preparation of unlabeled dsDNA or fork DNA, complementary strands were mixed at a 1:1 molar ratio. For FAM-labeled constructs, the labeled strand and its unlabeled complementary strand were mixed at a 1:1.2 molar ratio. The mixtures were heated to 95°C and denatured for 5 min in a thermal cycler (Bio-Rad), followed by gradual cooling to room temperature at least 3 h with the thermal cycler lid open. The annealed DNA products were stored at 4°C and used within one week.

dsDNA substrate containing Box I and II from OriS used in cryo-EM single particle analysis:

$F_{cryo-EM}$: 5'-AAGCGTTCGCACTTCGTCCCAATATATATATATTATTAGGGCGAAGTGCGAGCACT-3'

$R_{cryo-EM}$: 5'-AGTGCTCGCACTTCGCCCTAATAATATATATATATTGGGACGAAGTGCGAACGCTT-3'

dsDNA substrate containing Box I from OriS used in helicase and ATPase activity assay:

$F_{Helicase}$: 5'-CGCGAAGCGTTCGCACTTCGTCCTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTT-3'

$R_{Helicase}$: 5'-TTTTTTTTTTTTTTTTGGACGAAGTGCGAACGCTTCGCG-FAM-3'

15-bp dsDNA of Box I from OriS for MST assay and EMSA assay:

F_{MST}: 5'-GCGTTCGCACTTCGT-3'

R_{MST}: 5'-ACGAAGTGCGAACGC-3'

Protein expression and purification

The genes encoding full-length HSV-1 UL9 (UniProt: P10193) and ICP8 (UniProt: P04296) were codon-optimized and synthesized (GeneralBiol). UL9 was cloned into the pFastBac-1 (Invitrogen) vector with an N-terminal Strep-tag (^{Strep}UL9) and expressed in Hi5 insect cells. After 48 h post-infection with P3 baculovirus generated in Sf9 cells, cells were harvested by centrifugation at 1500 × g for 10 min. The pellet was resuspended in Lysis Buffer (50 mM HEPES, 500 mM NaCl, 10% glycerol, pH 7.0) supplemented with cOmplete (Roche). The resuspended cells were sonicated for 15 min and centrifuged with a Beckman JA25.50 rotor at 20,000 × g for 40 min at 4 °C. The supernatant was retained and incubated Strep-Tactin XT beads (IBA Lifesciences) for 1 h at 4 °C. The beads were then washed

three times with Lysis Buffer to remove non-specifically bound proteins, and target protein

was subsequently eluted using 2.5 mM D-biotin in Lysis Buffer. The target protein was

pooled supplemented with 1 mM DTT, concentrated (AmiconUltra, 50 kDa molecular mass

cut-off) (Millipore), and further purified using Superdex 200 Increase 10/300 GL column (GE

Healthcare) in Gel filtration buffer (20 mM HEPES, 300 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, pH 7.0).

The C-terminal domain of UL9 (residues 536-851, UL9^{CTD}) was cloned into pET-22b

vector (Novagen) with an N-terminal 8×His tag and overexpressed in *E. coli* BL21(DE3)

(Novagen) cells. Protein expression was induced at 16 °C for 16-20 h with 0.3 mM

isopropyl-1-thio-β-Dgalactopyranoside (IPTG) until OD600 ≈ 0.6. Cells harvested were

resuspended in Lysis Buffer and lysed by three passes through a microfluidizer. After

high-speed centrifugation at 20,000 × *g* for 40 min, the clarified supernatant was incubated

with Ni-NTA agarose (GE Healthcare) for 1 h at 4 °C. Beads were washed three times with

Lysis Buffer containing 60 mM imidazole, and target protein was eluted in Lysis Buffer

containing 300 mM imidazole. The eluted protein was pooled, concentrated (10 kDa

molecular mass cut-off), and further purified using Superdex 75 Increase 10/300 GL column

(GE Healthcare) in Gel filtration buffer. All UL9^{CTD} mutants were purified using the same

protocol as wild-type. UL9^{CTD} and its truncation mutants used for GST pull-down assays,

along with two C-tail fragments, were cloned into the pGEX-6P-1 vector (GE Healthcare) to

generate GST-tagged fusion proteins. Recombinant protein expression, cell resuspension,

and lysis procedures followed the same protocol as for His-tagged UL9^{CTD}. After

centrifugation, the clarified supernatants were incubated with Glutathione-Sepharose 4B

beads (GE Healthcare) at 4 °C for 1 h. The resin was then washed with Lysis buffer, and the

GST-tagged target proteins were eluted using GST elution buffer (50 mM HEPES, 300 mM

NaCl, 50 mM reduced glutathione, 1 mM DTT, pH 7.0). Finally, the eluted proteins were

analyzed using SDS-PAGE, concentrated, and buffer-exchanged into Gel filtration buffer for

subsequent analysis.

The full-length ICP8 was cloned into pFastBac-1 vector with an N-terminal 8×His tag

and overexpressed in insect cells using the same protocol as UL9^{FL}. Cell harvesting,

resuspension, and lysis also followed the procedure outlined for UL9^{FL}. ICP8 was purified

via Ni-NTA affinity chromatography as UL9^{CTD}, and then used for biochemical studies.

To prepare the UL9-dsDNA complex, purified UL9 and pre-treated dsDNA were mixed

at a 1:1.5 molar ratio in 150 mM NaCl and incubated for 1 h on ice. The mixture was further

purified using Superdex 200 Increase 10/300 GL column in buffer containing 20 mM

HEPES, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT, pH 7.0 (Supplementary Fig. 1). Fractions containing the

target complex were pooled and concentrated, and the fresh sample was used immediately

for structural studies.

Cryo-EM grid preparation and date collection

For cryo-EM grid preparation, freshly concentrated UL9 and UL9-dsDNA complex were first

diluted to 0.6 mg ml^{-1} and 0.8 mg ml^{-1}, respectively. The cryo-EM grids were prepared using

an automatic plunge freezer Vitrobot Mark IV (ThermoFisher Scientific) under 100%

humidity at 4 °C. Each aliquot of 3 µl diluted UL9 or UL9-dsDNA complex was loaded onto

the freshly glow-discharged NiTi grid (R1.2/1.3, 300 mesh, Zhenjiang Lehua). After

incubation for 10 s, excess sample was blotted with filter paper for 3 s with a blot force of 3,

and then the grid was vitrified by flash plunging into liquid ethane. All datasets were

automatically collected using SerialEM[49] through the beam-image shift data collection

method[50] on a 300 kV Titan Krios microscope (ThermoFisher Scientific) equipped with an

energy filter and a K2 Summit detector (Gatan). Images were recorded under the

super-resolution mode at a nominal magnification of 165,000× and a defocus value ranged

between -1.0 to -3.0 µm, resulting in a pixel size of 0.41 Å. Each move stack was exposed

for 6.2 s with a total exposure dose of ~60 electrons per Å^2 over 32 frames.

Data processing and reconstruction

All cryo-EM movie stacks were firstly binned and subjected to beam-induced motion

correction and anisotropic magnification correction using MotionCor2[51]. Contrast transfer

function (CTF) parameters were estimated with CTFFIND4.1[52] using non-dose-weighted

images. Subsequent processing steps, including particle picking, 2D classification, 3D

classification, and auto-refinement were performed in Relion-3.08[53] using dose-weighted

images. First, particles were automatic picked using the Laplacian-of-Gaussian filter and

processed with several rounds of reference-free 2D classification. Then, the best five

images with clear structural features and diverse orientations were selected as templates

for reference-based particle auto-picking. For apo-UL9, a total of 1,090,101 particles were

picked from 2080 micrographs and subjected to reference-free 2D classification. 249,188

particles with clear structural features were kept for further 3D classification with C2

symmetry imposed, using the initial model generated by Relion. One among the five

classes containing 158,949 particles were selected for final 3D auto-refinement, resulting in

a 4.1 Å resolution density map (Supplementary Fig. 2). For UL9-DNA complex, 913,885

particles were picked from 2055 micrographs. After 2D classification, 147,241 particles

were selected for further 3D classification with C2 symmetry, using the density map of

apo-UL9 as the initial model. 110,702 particles from the best class among five was

subjected to 3D auto-refinement and resulted in a 3.7 Å resolution density map

(Supplementary Fig. 2). The local resolutions of final maps were calculated using

ResMap[54]. Statistics for data collection and processing were summarized in

Supplementary Table S1.

Model building and refinement

For model building, the UL9-dsDNA complex was first built in Coot[55] with the help of the

predicted model from Alphafold 2[29] based on it higher resolution and better quality

density map. The cryo-EM density map of C-termianl domain (residues 536-844) in the

UL9-dsDNA complex was good enough to trace almost all the residues; however, some

density was missing at the N-terminal helicase domain (residues 19-535). The complete

model was further improved by a few iterative rounds of real-space refinement using

PHENIX[56] and manual modification in Coot until no further improvement could be

achieved. The apo-UL9 model was generated by docking the refined mode of UL9-dsDNA

complex into the corresponding density map in UCSF ChimeraX[57], followed by iterative

real-space refinement and manual modification. The final model of UL9-dsDNA complex

includes residues 19-843 and two duplex DNA molecules, with residues 135-146, 267-283

and 431-456 missing. In contrast, residues 748-799 in the apo-UL9 model was not modeled

due to the absence of corresponding density in the cryo-EM map. Statistics of the final

models were summarized in Supplementary Table S1. Structural analysis was performed

with UCSF ChimeraX and PyMOL (https://pymol.org/).

ATPase activity assay

ATPase activity assays were performed using the Malachite Green Phosphate Detection Kit

(Beyotime) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The reactions were carried out by

mixing 1 µM UL9 protein and 2.5 mM ATP of the final concentration in 20 µl ATPase Buffer

(20 mM HEPES, pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 5mM $MgCl_2$, 1 mM DTT, 10% glycerol) in 96-well

plates and incubated at 37 °C for 30 min. The reactions were terminated by adding 180 µl

200 mM EDTA , followed by addition of 70 µl malachite green reagent for colorimetric

detection, and further incubated at room temperature for 30 min. The absorbance values of

colorimetric products were measured at 630 nm using an Envison Multimode Microplate

Reader (PerkinElmer). The phosphate standard curve was prepared according to the kit

instructions. All assays were independently repeated at least three times.

Helicase activity assay

FAM-labeled DNA substrates used for helicase activity assays were prepared by annealing

a 3'-FAM-labeled DNA with an unlabeled complementary DNA at a mole ratio of 1:1.2. The

reactions were carried out by mixing 50 nM dsDNA or fork DNA substrate with proteins of

different concentrations in Helicase Buffer (20 mM HEPES, pH 7.5, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM

DTT, 10% glycerol, 5 mM $MgCl_2$, 0.1% BSA, 2.5 mM ATP) and incubated at 37 °C for 30

min. The reactions were terminated by adding 1 mg/ml proteinase K for 20 min. The

samples were analyzed using 15% Uera-PAGE and the images were taken using a

ChemiDoc[TM] MP Imaging System (Bio-Rad). All assays were independently repeated at

least three times.

Electrophoretic Mobility Shift Assay (EMSA)

DNA binding of UL9[CTD] was analyzed using Electrophoretic Mobility Shift assay (EMSA).

Briefly, 0.5-3.5 µM of purified UL9[CTD] or its mutants were incubated with 40 nM FAM-labeled

dsDNA for 1 h at 4 °C in 20 µl EMSA buffer (50 mM Tris, pH 8.0, 50 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT).

Then the samples were mixed with loading dye and analyzed by 7% non-denaturing PAGE

gel in 1 × TG buffer (25 mM Tris, 192 mM glycine). The gels were imaged using a

ChemiDoc[TM] MP Imaging System (Bio-Rad) according to the manufacturer instructions. All

assays were independently repeated at least three times.

Microscale thermophoresis (MST) assay

The dsDNA binding affinity of UL9^{CTD} was performed using microscale thermophoresis (MST) assay on a Monolith NT.115 instrument (NanoTemper Technologies). Purified UL9^{CTD} or its mutants (Ligands) with serial dilution in MST buffer (50 mM Tris, pH 8.0, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT and 0.05% Tween-20) was mixed with 40 nM of FAM-labeled dsDNA (Target) as using in EMSA assay. The samples were loaded into premium coated capillaries (NanoTemper) after 30 min incubation in dark at room temperature. Measurements were performed at 25 °C with 20% LED power and Medium MST power with laser off/on times of 5 s and 10 s, respectively. Data were collected using MO.Control software (v3.0), and analyses using MO.Affinity Analysis 3 (v3.0) (NanoTemper) performed by fitting the normalized fluorescence (F_{norm}) versus protein concentration to a single-site binding model. All assays were independently repeated three times.

Pull-down assay

For GST pull-down assays, 50 μg of purified GST-fused UL9^{CTD} mutants or C-tail peptides were mixed with an equal amount of ICP8. After a tenth of each mixture was taken out as input controls, 25 μl of prepared GST beads (GE Healthcare) and 1 ml Pull-down buffer (50 mM Tris, pH 8.0, 150 mM NaCl, 1 mM DTT and 0.05% Tween-20) were added to the remaining samples and incubated with gentle rotation for 1 h at 4 °C. The beads were then pelleted by centrifugation at 1,000 × g and washed three times with 1 ml Pull-down buffer, and subsequently analyzed using 12% SDS-PAGE gels stained with Coomassie blue. For Strep-tag pull-down assays, 50 μg of purified Strep-tagged UL9^{CTD} or full-length UL9 were mixed with an equal amount of ICP8. Subsequent steps were performed as described for the GST pull-down assay. All assays were independently repeated three times.

Data availability

The cryo-EM density maps and corresponding atomic coordinates have been deposited in the Electron Microscopy Data Bank (EMDB) and Protein Data Bank (PDB), respectively: UL9 (PDB 9VJI, EMD-65114) and UL9-DNA complex (PDB 9VJH, EMD-65113). All data that support the findings of this study are available from the corresponding authors on reasonable request. Source data are provided with this paper.

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Author contributions

J.M. and X.Z. conceived the project and designed all the experiments. C.H., H.W. and J.S. performed protein expression and purification, conducted biochemical and functional studies. C.H. prepared and screened the cryo-EM specimens. J.M. and C.H. collected and processed the cryo-EM data, and built the model. C.H., J.M. and X.Z. wrote the manuscript with input from all authors. All authors participated in experimental discussions, performed data analysis and interpretation, and approved the final version of the manuscript.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Figure 1. Cryo-EM structure of the UL9-DNA complex. a Domain architecture of HSV-1 UL9 protein, with the N-terminal helicase domain and C-terminal domain indicated. The RecA1, RecA2, Bridge, CDD, SAP and C-tail subdomains or regions are shown in violet, salmon, orange, slate, aquamarine and lime, respectively. Inter-subdomain boundaries are marked with residue numbers. **b** Three orthogonal views of the cryo-EM density map for the UL9-DNA complex, colored according to the domain coloring scheme in (**a**). **c** Corresponding orthogonal views of the atomic model presented in cartoon representation, colored identically to panel **b**.

Figure 2. Structural analysis of UL9 protomer. a Two orthogonal views of the UL9 protomer structure. **b** Two-dimensional topology diagram of UL9. **c** Structural comparison of UL9 helicase domain with its structural homolog DDX48 identified by the Dali server. **d** Structural superposition of UL9 RecA1 and RecA2 subdomains with corresponding subdomains in DDX48. **e** Key residues involved in ATP binding and hydrolysis in UL9 are identical to those in its structural homolog DHX48. The UL9-ATP complex model was predicted with AlphaFold. **f** Structural superposition of UL9 SAP domain with its homolog MAFN identified by the Dali server. All structural representations throughout the panels follow the color scheme in Figure 1a, with domains labeled and homologous proteins (DDX48 and MAFN) shown in gray. RMSD values for structural superpositions in panels **d** and **f** are provided.

Figure 3. Structural details of UL9 dimerization. a Three types of dimerization interfaces classified in UL9. The two protomers are separated by a dashed line, with interfaces highlighted by solid rectangles and labeled. **b** Symmetrical Type I interface formed between CDDs. **c** Type II interface involving the CDD of one protomer and the RecA2 subdomain and Bridge motif of the opposing protomer. **d** Type III interface comprising the C-tail of one protomer and multiple subdomains (RecA1, RecA2, Bridge and CDD) of the opposing protomer. In panels **b-d**, subdomains involved in interactions are represented as cartoons with labels, whereas regions without interaction are shown as transparent cartoons.

Figure 4. Details of the interaction between UL9 and DNA. a Two orthogonal views of the core structure of UL9-DNA interaction. **b** Structural details of UL9-DNA interaction. Panel **b** is an enlargement of the area enclosed by a dashed rectangle in panel **a** after rotation. Protein and DNA structures are represented as cartoons, with side chains of residues involved in UL9-DNA interactions displayed as sticks. **c** EMSA analysis of wild-type UL9^{CTD} and its potential DNA-binding mutants. For EMSA assay, a series of seven increasing UL9^{CTD} concentrations (ranging from 0.5 to 3.5 μM) were tested. All assays were independently repeated at least three times with consistent results.

Figure 5. Interaction between UL9 and ICP8. a Strep-tag pull-down assay demonstrating interaction of ICP8 with either full-length UL9 or UL9^{CTD}. **b** GST pull-down assay analyzing binding between ICP8 and either UL9^{CTD} or the C-tail. **c** Comparative ATPase activity of wild-type UL9 versus its functional mutants. ATPase activity assays were performed using the Malachite Green Phosphate Detection Kit. Data are presented as the mean with standard deviation for experiments performed in triplicate. Statistical significance was determined by a two-tailed Student's *t*-test (*p < 0.05, **p < 0.01, *p < 0.001). **d** ICP8-mediated stimulation of UL9 helicase activity. Wild-type UL9 and two C-terminal truncation mutants (ΔC16 and ΔC8) were tested.

Figure 6. Working model of UL9 function. a A schematic diagram of HSV-1 UL9 showing domain organization and functional annotation. **b** Proposed catalytic cycle of UL9, divided into four stages. Stage 1, apo-UL9 dimer in resting conformation. Stage 2, conformational changes in UL9 dimeric complex induced by ICP8 and ATP binding, while dsDNA from the replication origin site binds to the SAP subdomain. Stage 3, coordinated ATP hydrolysis and ICP8 stimulation mediate dsDNA unwinding. Stage 4, release of reaction products (ADP and ssDNA), and ICP8 dissociation and recycling. Molecular component annotations are shown in the solid box below.